WORKBOOK FOR LINGUISTICS 200

(SPRING 2009)

INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL DESCRIPTION

Table of Contents

1. WHAT IS GRAMMAR?

For linguists, the study of *grammar* is the study of the structure of language. In its broadest sense, *grammar* covers a wide variety of phenomena including the sound system of a language, the lexicon, which consists of words and other meaningful units, and larger structures such as phrases and sentences. However, *grammar* also has a more restricted sense – the one that we will use in this course. When most of us think of grammar, we think of the structure of sentences. When we "do" grammar, we analyze this structure by parsing (identifying the categories to which words belong) and by describing how the words form recurring patterns that we call *phrases* and *clauses*. There are many different approaches to grammar. The sections that follow outline some of them.

Descriptive Grammar

The material covered in this course is presented from a descriptive perspective. We will *describe* English sentence structure by examining the ways in which proficient speakers of English use grammar. When we take this view of language, we do *not* think of utterances in terms of whether they are *good* or *bad* English. Instead, we are concerned with the ways in which utterances are commonly constructed. *Grammatical* sentences are structures that proficient speakers of English would actually say or write. In English, for example, determiners like *the* come before the nouns that they refer to. So we might say that a descriptive "fact" or "rule" of English grammar is that nouns precede determiners. If you compare sentences 1 and 2 below, you'll notice that the first one conforms to that expectation, while the second one does not. For that reason we consider the first sentence to be grammatical and the second one to be ungrammatical. To denote an ungrammatical structure, linguists typically use an asterisk as shown.

1) The cat was sleeping by the door.
2) *Cat the was sleeping by door the.

Sentence 2 above is ungrammatical because its word order doesn't fit our expectations about the way English sentences are constructed. However, word order is not the only thing we need to consider when analyzing grammatical structure. Sentence 3 below is grammatical, while 4 is not:

3) She works at the bakery.
4) *She work at the bakery.

The problem with sentence 4 is that it lacks a marker (*-s*) that is required in present-tense sentences with *he* or *she* as a subject. Still another example of ungrammaticality is illustrated by the following pair:

5) I ate all my dinner.
6) *I eated all my dinner.

This time, the problem has to do with a particular verb form. The past form of *eat* is *ate*, not **eated*. Children sometimes produce sentences like 6 when they are acquiring English, probably because they have recognized that many past tense verbs have an *-ed* ending. However, they eventually learn to produce the grammatical form *ate*.

While proficient speakers of English generally agree that sentences 2, 4, and 6 are ungrammatical, sometimes there are differences of opinion about other structures. One thing to notice is that the grammaticality of an utterance depends on the particular variety or dialect of a language that is being considered. In other words, a sentence that is grammatical in one variety of English may not be grammatical in another. For most speakers of Western Canadian English (WCE) the following are not grammatical:

7) *I might could get some eggs when I go to the store.
8) *This chair needs fixed.

Sentence 7 is marked with an asterisk because WCE generally does not allow more than one modal auxiliary (a word like *can*, *may*, *might* or *could*) in a verb unit. Sentence 8 is also ungrammatical because, in WCE, *needs* requires an *–ing* form as its complement. Most speakers of WCE find both these sentences unacceptable and would be unlikely to ever say or write them. However, in some varieties of English, including dialects spoken in the southern United States, both of these sentences are grammatical, and a linguist attempting to describe those varieties would *not* mark them with an asterisk. In this course we will use WCE as our basis for deciding what is and what is not grammatical. We will focus on sentences that are clearly grammatical and will occasionally consider ones that are clearly ungrammatical. Sometimes speakers of a particular variety of a language like WCE may disagree on whether or not a particular sentence is grammatical. We will leave these debatable cases for discussion in other courses.

One can approach descriptive grammar in a variety of ways. Linguists have developed many different types of labels and diagrams for sentences. Their variable approaches to grammar often make different assumptions about the nature of linguistic structures. In this course, we will take a traditional approach – one that uses fairly well-known labels in commonly-accepted ways. In fact, much of the terminology we will cover is similar to that used in books written for learners of English as a second language. However, if you take other courses about language structure, you will find that the terminology used to talk about grammar can vary, and that different principles of analysis are often assumed. Some approaches require a strict formalism: labels are applied in very particular ways, and tree diagrams are used to illustrate subtle structural phenomena. While the purpose of Linguistics 200 is to help you approach English grammar analytically, our goal is not to learn a particular formalism or to draw tree diagrams. Rather, we will aim at a general overview of English structures that should help you understand virtually any basic English grammar text.

The existence of a wide variety of approaches to English grammar reflects the fact that linguists have not come to an agreement on the best way to characterize the structure of English – or of languages in general. If you are to be successful in this course and in other courses in language analysis, you will have to accept this fact.

Prescriptive Grammar

Prescriptive grammar entails the evaluation of particular ways of using language as *correct* or *incorrect* or as *good* or *bad*. People who take this view use their opinions about language to tell others how to speak or write. Someone who tells you not to end a sentence with a preposition or not to "split" an infinitive (as in "to quickly finish") is prescribing, rather than describing language use. This is a very different way of thinking about language than the *descriptive* approach covered above. Descriptivists consider all structures that proficient speakers systematically use to be grammatical. (Of course, that doesn't include sentences produced with speech errors.) Therefore, for descriptivists, *ungrammatical* structures are ones that people *don't* use. Prescriptivists, on the other hand, take the view that even things that people regularly say or write should be judged as *good* or *bad*. Over the centuries, hundreds of prescriptive "rules" have been proposed for English. Here are a few:

- *Don't end an utterance with a preposition.* Some people claim that "Who were you talking to?" is inferior to "To whom were you talking?"

- *Don't split an infinitive*. They might also claim that "… to boldly go where no man has gone before…" is inferior to " … to go boldly where no man has gone before…"

- *Don't use object forms after BE*. They might insist that "It's me" should be replaced by "It is I."

- *Don't use "if" to begin a noun complement clause*. They might say that "I wonder if he's coming" is not as good as "I wonder whether he is coming."

Even though some prescriptivists object to the examples above, I have not used any asterisks, because these patterns are not ungrammatical. In fact, proficient English speakers use structures like these all the time. Because the field of linguistics aims at documenting and analyzing the way language is actually used rather than at telling people how to speak or write, linguists generally take a negative view of prescriptivism. In fact, some linguists have written quite scathing criticisms of prescriptivist thinking. In this course, we will certainly not be taking a prescriptive approach. However, it is worth commenting briefly on some of the errors in thinking that underlie a great deal of prescriptivist commentary on language.

Emotional responses to language

Some people believe that their own negative emotional reactions to particular uses of language should be shared by everyone. For instance, you might hear them complaining that they are horrified when they hear "access" used as a verb, as in "Everyone can access that web page easily." Other folks become emotional about sentence-final prepositions or split infinitives. Regrettably, the people who become most emotional about language are often those who have the least understanding of linguistics. One very famous example of linguistic emotionalism comes from George Orwell, author of the novels *Animal Farm* and *1984*. In 1946, Orwell wrote a bombastic essay entitled *Politics and the English Language*, in which he presented some of his prejudices about language use. Among these was his prescriptive belief that the passive voice should be avoided as much as possible. Orwell, who was not the first person to complain about the passive, would probably claim, for instance, that a sentence like "The house was damaged by the storm" is inferior to "The storm damaged the house." A number of years later an analysis of Orwell's essay was published, in which it was reported that more than 20% of the verbs in that very essay were in the passive voice. Yet in typical periodical writing, the frequency of passive use was only about 13%! As far as anyone knows, Orwell was unaware that he was violating his own rule over and over again, and that he was actually using the passive *more* often than other writers. The most likely reason for the discrepancy between his advice and his actions is that Orwell had not reflected carefully on the uses of the English passive. Instead his ideas were motivated by emotionalism. Descriptive linguists do not regard the passive as "good" or "bad." Instead, they point out that the passive voice is generally used when the doer of an action is unknown or unimportant. In scientific writing, for instance, the passive allows a writer to economically refer to actions and events without mentioning the agent (e.g., "The patient was given an injection" instead of "A nurse gave an injection to the patient.") This case, and many others like it, have been discussed at length by the linguist, Geoffrey Pullum. You can read more of his ideas at the *Language Log* website <http://158.130.17.5/~myl/languagelog/>.

Misinformed and illogical views about language

Some popular ideas about language are based on misinformation or a lack of understanding of how languages work. Some prescriptivists believe, for example, that older language forms and meanings are inherently more "correct" than newer ones. For instance, some have claimed that the expression "comprised of" is less correct than "comprised" because the first form appeared later in the development of English (around the end of the 18th century). They argue that instead of saying "Canada is comprised of ten provinces" you should say "Canada

comprises ten provinces." However, if we were to follow this type of reasoning to its logical end, we would have to conclude that almost all aspects of contemporary English are wrong! English has changed a great deal over the many centuries that it has existed as a language. Here, for instance, is a passage written in Old English, a phase of the language that lasted from about the 5th to the 12th century:

> Eft he axode, hu ðære ðeode nama wære þe hi of comon. Him wæs geandwyrd, þæt hi Angle genemnode wæron. Þa cwæð he, "Rihtlice hi sind Angle gehatene, for ðan ðe hi engla wlite habbað, and swilcum gedafenað þæt hi on heofonum engla geferan beon." (Source: Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary http://www.merriam-webster.com/help/faq/history.htm

As you can see, this passage is mostly unintelligible to users of modern-day English. But if it really were true that older forms of language are "more correct" than newer forms, we would have to say that this passage is better written than its contemporary translation. Perhaps that means that we should all go back to speaking Old English to ensure that we are using our language correctly! Of course, that is a ridiculous idea, but it appears to be a logical extension of the belief that "older is better."

The idea that older forms are inherently better than new ones is based on the false assumption that languages cannot evolve over time. In fact, all languages change, and it is unlikely that prescriptivists (or anyone else) can do anything to prevent this from happening. Descriptivists accept this fact. Moreover, they do not see linguistic change as inherently good or bad.

Another example of misinformed reasoning about language concerns the use of *their* as a singular possessive word, as in the following sentence:

> 9) Everyone should do their best.

Notice that I have not used an asterisk because this is a common type of utterance in WCE and in other varieties of English. However, prescriptivists have sometimes argued that 9 is "bad English." They note that *everyone* is a singular pronoun, but claim that *their* is a plural determiner that cannot be used to refer to a singular antecedent. This notion about correct and incorrect uses of *their* was the idea of 18th century grammarians, and it has been a favourite issue of grade school English teachers for a very long time. Some people have even argued that the occurrence of sentences like 9 shows that English grammar is deteriorating and that the language is "at risk." However, there is no reason to take that view seriously. Prior to the 18th century, *their* was commonly used with a singular antecedent, and you will find examples of this usage in the writings of Shakespeare, Chaucer, Swift, and many other great writers. If English really were in decline, it would seem odd to put the blame on Shakespeare!

Rather than view the plural use of *their* as a sign of bad English, descriptivists prefer to look for reasons why speakers of English might make such a choice. A likely explanation is that the alternatives to using *their* in sentence 9 are not very satisfactory. English has a few 3rd person possessives: *his*, *her*, *its*, and *one's*, for example. What problems do you see with each of these possibilities?

Stylebooks and writing manuals usually treat language prescriptively. Their authors might argue that written English is clearer and easier to read when certain prescriptions are followed. Whether they are right on that point is an issue that could be discussed at great length. However, we will not focus our attention on prescriptive matters in this course.

Punctuation is not grammar!

Issues of punctuation and spelling are not regarded as aspects of descriptive grammar, and we will not generally discuss them in this course either. A sentence like *"Studying grammer sure is interesting"* is not ungrammatical, even though it does contain a spelling error.

C. Applied Grammar: Teaching Second Language Learners

Applied grammar is the approach to grammar used in second language instruction. If you have learned English, French, or Mandarin as a second language, you have probably used a "pedagogical grammar" textbook. Most second language teaching is based on descriptive, rather than prescriptive, accounts of language. Although language teachers certainly give their students advice on how sentences are formed, their goal is to help learners gain proficiency in the language being taught. Therefore, they usually encourage their students to speak and write the language the way proficient users do. For instance, ESL instructors might teach students that sentence 10 below is grammatical, whereas 11 is not:

10) He often takes the bus to work.
11) *He takes often the bus to work.

Proficient speakers of English will almost always agree that something is wrong with sentence 11, although they might not be able to explain why. In this case, the problem has to do with the position of the frequency adverb *often*. Frequency adverbs do not generally occur between a verb (*takes)* and a direct object (*the bus)*.

Most ESL instructors base their teaching on descriptive English grammar and not on prescriptions about good and bad usage. As an ESL teacher a number of years ago, I once mentioned to a colleague that I had been telling my students about the common use of *There's…* in both singular and plural contexts. For instance, some proficient speakers of English might use all the following:

12) There's a fly in my soup.
13) There are three people in the room.
14) There's three people in the room.
15) There's a lot of cars parked on the street.

My colleague was surprised that I had mentioned sentences 14 and 15 to my students because she thought that these illustrated "bad" English. "Do you teach your students what English speakers *actually* say or what they *should* say?" she asked. As you can readily see, she was taking a prescriptive view. My reply was that the most important thing in English language instruction is to teach actual usage. But I also said that it would be useful to point out to students the difference in the ways 13 and 14 might be used. If you were faced with the same situation, how would you explain the difference between these two utterances?

Grammar and Psychology

Some linguists study the ways in which linguistic knowledge is represented in the minds of speakers. They aim at answering the question "What do you know when you know a language?" Addressing this problem has led to much debate. For instance, some scholars have argued that a great deal of human knowledge of language is innately endowed. According to that account, we are born programmed with a universal grammar that includes quite specific information about how languages work. If so, then the chief task of children learning a native language is to discover how universal grammar is applied in that language.

But the *nativist* view of language described above is just one perspective. Other contemporary researchers and theorists doubt the existence of this kind of universal grammar. Instead, they believe that all the important aspects of language have to be learned after birth. They place the focus on how children make use of the linguistic input that they hear from caregivers and others in order to become proficient users of language.

Some linguists carry out psycholinguistic research to address this controversy and to answer other questions about the psychology of language. They might, for example, observe that sentences like 16 below are sometimes produced by children learning English as a first language or by ESL learners:

16) *She goed home already.

This sentence uses a past tense form (*goed), which looks very much like many common past tense forms (*arrived*, *lived*, *fixed*, etc.), but which adult English speakers recognize as ungrammatical. The *overgeneralization* of the *–ed* past tense marker to an inappropriate situation is a common process in language acquisition. Psycholinguists are interested in explaining why such errors occur. One possible account is that people acquire and use subconscious "rules" about language, which they sometimes misapply. On that view, one of the things language learners must do is to learn when and when not to apply particular rules. In the case of the past tense, for instance, one might say that learners acquire a rule that captures the way the *–ed* marker is used, and that they must apply that rule only to certain verbs like *wait* and *need*, but not to the verbs *eat*, *drive*, and *write*.

However, rule-based knowledge is only one possible way of understanding the error. Other linguists have proposed different kinds of language acquisition processes that do not entail actual knowledge of rules, but which have to do with the way the people *associate* or *connect* different kinds of information in their brains. It is likely that the debate over this problem and other related issues will continue for many years into the future.

PART I EXERCISES

A. Indicate whether each of the statements below is motivated by descriptive (D) or prescriptive (P) thinking.

_____ 1. In English, adverbs often end in *–ly*.

_____ 2. It really burns me up when people say *irregardless* when they mean *regardless*.

_____ 3. The sentence "Don't gives that to me" is not well-formed in WCE.

_____ 4. People who say *"Wazzup?"* don't know proper English.

_____ 5. Children need to study grammar in school so that they learn to speak correctly.

B. Place a '*' in front of each sentence that is ungrammatical for most or all proficient speakers of WCE, and see if you can explain why. Which sentences might be criticized by a prescriptivist, despite being grammatical?

1. Be sure to fully cook the turkey.

2. Colourless green ideas sleep furiously.

3. Why do he always leave the lights on?

4. The people which live in that house are extremely tidy.

5. Because of the turbulence, you'll have to fasten your seatbelt.

6. She drinks always coffee for breakfast.

7. did you here the good, news.

8. Some people dislike to go out in the rain.

C. All of the following are grammatical in some variety of English, but are unlikely to be used by speakers of WCE. Why not?

1. These drawings are not identical; one is clearly different to the other.

2. What are yall doing after the movie?

3. She graduated high school in 2006.

4. He all right!

5. He was standing on line at the theatre for over an hour.

6. Beloved, thou hast brought me many flowers plucked in the garden.

2. CLASSIFYING WORDS

Word classes fall into two broad categories: open classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) and closed classes (everything else). The sections that follow present some of the labels that we will be using for words when we analyze the structure of English sentences. For instance, we'll use 'N' for a noun and 'Adj' for an adjective. Doing this type of analysis is called *parsing*, and we'll refer to the labels in this section as *parsing labels*.

OPEN CLASSES

A class is regarded as "open" when new words can be added to it quite readily. For instance, as English changes in response to technological development, medicine, politics, and culture, we get new words like *iPod*, *Viagra*, *ringtone*, *unibrow*, *supersize*, or *pwned*. Words from open classes carry most of the meaningful content of a sentence. In fact, well-formed English sentences usually contain at least one open class word. For that reason they are sometimes called *content words*.

Nouns (N)

Reference

Nouns are commonly said to refer to

people	Marie-France, doctor, professor
places	Victoria, Stanley Park
things	tree, cat, soup

However, that definition is not very satisfactory. *Nothingness* is a noun, but it doesn't fit into any of those categories. And abstract concepts like *honesty*, *evil*, and *beauty* are certainly not "things" in the same sense that a *tree* is a thing. For these reasons, it is helpful to think of word classes not just in terms of their reference, but also in terms of the roles they can play in sentences. Here we can use "slot tests" that may help us identify the class of a word on the basis of its grammatical properties. Because a noun, or a noun with a determiner, can serve as the subject or object of a sentence, words that fit grammatically into the blanks below are likely to be nouns:

Slot Tests

(The) _____ is interesting.
I like (the) _____.
I hate (the) _____.

Nouns can be sub-categorized according to three types of distinctions, as outlined below.

Noun sub-classes

a) Countable vs uncountable nouns

Countable nouns refer to entities that can be enumerated (one cat, two cats, three cats, etc.); therefore, countable nouns have both singular and plural forms. Most nouns can be used in a countable sense in at least some circumstances.

card(s) box(es) chair(s)

Uncountable or mass nouns refer to things that are not generally regarded as individual entities. Nouns used in a mass sense are not pluralized.

milk air hydrogen

b) Proper vs common nouns

Proper nouns (PropN) refer to specific people, places, or things and are usually capitalized.

Paris Mr. Bean the Vatican

Common nouns refer to everyday things.

magazine bean telephone

c) Concrete vs abstract nouns

Concrete nouns refer to things that can be seen, touched, or otherwise experienced directly through the senses.

rock fence water

Abstract nouns refer to qualities or ideas that cannot experienced directly by seeing, touching, etc. These nouns are not commonly pluralized.

love stupidity hatred

Note that the three sub-classes are not mutually exclusive. For instance, a concrete noun may simultaneously be a countable noun.

Verbs

We will be using a variety of different parsing labels for verbs. For now, we will simply call them 'V.'

Reference

Verbs are sometimes described as "action words":

actions	Tracey works seven days a week. Harry got up at six. Fido chased the car around the block.

However, many verbs do not refer to actions at all. Some verbs describe the following:

states/characteristics	Ludo seems tired. The president became a tyrant.
sensations	This durian smells terrible.

Still other verbs don't fit any of these categories very well:

Lyman has a lot of time to kill.
Lionel endured the two-hour operation.

As with nouns, it is often helpful to verify that a word is a verb by examining its grammatical properties. Because the auxiliary *can* is used together with verbs, words that fit into the following slots are likely to be verbs.

Slot Tests

I can _____ (it) (there).
It can _____.
It can _____ good.

Sub-classes

There are many sub-classes of verbs. We will discuss these extensively later on.

Adjectives (Adj)

Reference

Adjectives are sometimes said to "modify" or supply descriptive information about nouns. They may answer such questions as "what kind" or indicate a characteristic or state of something.

This morning, I saw a pretty bird.
The weather last spring was awful.

Slot Tests

Grammatically speaking, adjectives pattern in two distinct ways. An *attributive adjecti*ve is one that immediately precedes that noun that it refers to.

Attributive Adjective: A huge tree is growing on our front lawn.

A predicate adjective generally follows the verb in a sentence, and the noun it refers to comes earlier.

Predicate Adjective: Linda was enthusiastic.

Words that can fill one or both of the slots below are likely to be adjectives:

(The) _____ [noun] was very nice. (attributive slot)
(The) [noun] was very _____. (predicate slot)

Adverbs (Adv)

Reference

People often say that adverbs modify verbs, but that is not a very satisfactory description of their use. Often, adverbs providing background information for an entire sentence and are not tied to any other single word. They generally answer such questions as "how," "how often," "when," and "where." They are associated with the following types of meanings (among others).

manner	quickly, slowly
time	yesterday, tomorrow
location	outside, everywhere
frequency	sometimes, never, seldom

Slot Tests

One of the following slots will work in most cases.

I did it _____.
I will do it _____.
I will _____ do it.

Unlike many other parts of speech, adverbs tend to have some degree of mobility. Although not all adverbs are mobile, if you find that a word can be moved to another position in a sentence with little or no change in meaning, it is probably an adverb.

She finished the job <u>slowly</u>.	She <u>slowly</u> finished the job.
<u>Yesterday</u> I saw *Rear Window*.	I saw *Rear Window* <u>yesterday</u>.

CLOSED CLASSES

A word class is closed if it is uncommon for new items to be added to it. This is certainly true of determiners, pronouns, prepositions, and the other classes listed below. It has been a very long time since English acquired any new prepositions, for example.

Closed class words vary in the amount of meaningful content they carry. Their main role is to help show the grammatical relationships between other words in a sentence, and sometimes to link words in one sentence to words and ideas that have been mentioned before. They are sometimes called *function words*.

Determiners

1. Articles

indefinite (IndefArt)	a (for nouns beginning with a consonant sound) <u>a</u> book, <u>a</u> year, <u>a</u> union an (for nouns beginning with a vowel sound) <u>an</u> egg, <u>an</u> uncle, <u>an</u> hour
definite (DefArt)	the

2. Demonstrative Determiners (DemonD)

Like other determiners, a demonstrative determiner refers to a noun that comes immediately or soon afterward.

this	This lesson is fascinating.
that	That long lesson was stimulating.
these	These easy lessons will thrill you.
those	Those lessons are over.

Notice that *this* and *these* are used to refer to nouns that are "near," in terms of space and time from the reference point of the speaker. *That* and *those* generally refer to things that are more remote in terms of space or time.

IMPORTANT: Don't confuse *DemonD* with demonstrative pronouns, which are described below.

3. Possessive Pronoun Determiners (PossPronD)

Possessive pronoun determiners come from the *Personal Pronoun Paradigm* (see next section). Some textbooks call these *Possessive Pronouns*, but you should be careful not to confuse them with the *Independent Possessive Pronouns (IndPossPron)*.

my your her his its our your their	All of these determiners typically precede a noun.

4. Interrogative Pro-Determiners (IntProD)

These determiners also typically precede a noun, and are used to form questions.

what	What magazine would you like to read?
which	Which university is the best in Canada?
whose	Whose office is this?

Pronouns

People often say that pronouns "take the place of nouns." Although that sometimes appears to be true, it often is not. For instance, consider this sentence:

Nobody came to Brian's party.

Although *nobody* is clearly a pronoun, it is not possible to identify any noun that it replaces. Rather than say that pronouns *replace* nouns, it is better to think of them as words that can have

the same kinds of grammatical functions as nouns. For example, just like nouns they can serve as subjects and objects in sentences.

1. Personal Pronouns

Quick Quiz: Complete the personal pronoun chart below.

Person	**Subject Case (Pro)**	**Object Case (Pro)**	**Independent Possessive Pronouns (IndPossPron)**	**Reflexive Pronouns (Pro)**	**Possessive Pronoun Determiners (PossPronD)**
1st singular	I	me	mine	myself	my
2nd singular					
3rd singular					
1st plural					
2nd plural					
3rd plural					
2nd singular (archaic)					
2nd plural (dialectal)					
2nd plural (dialectal)					

REMINDER: The items in the last column above are not pronouns.

2. Indefinite Pronouns (Pro)

something	anything	everything	nothing
someone	anyone	everyone	no one
somebody	anybody	everybody	nobody

3. Interrogative Pronouns (IntPro)

who	<u>Who</u> has seen the wind?
whom (archaic)	<u>Whom</u> did you see?
what	<u>What</u> is the sound of one hand clapping?

4. Relative Pronouns (RelPron)

who	The man who won the election was ecstatic.
whom (archaic)	The woman whom we saw on TV was Joe's friend.
which	This shirt, which I bought at Rich's, is made of silk.
that	The country that the Prime Minister visited was China.

5. Demonstrative Pronouns (DemonPro)

Demonstrative pronouns should not be confused with demonstrative determiners. A demonstrative determiner modifies a noun, but a demonstrative pronoun stands in the place of a noun. Therefore, a demonstrative pronoun can be the subject or object (among other things) of a sentence.

this	This is a grammar lesson. I love this!
that	That is a fact.
these	These are examples of sentences with pronouns.
those	Those are fascinating.

Auxiliaries

Words in this class must be used with a verb. The verb may follow immediately or appear soon after the auxiliary.

1. HAVE, BE, DO (Aux)

HAVE (have, has, had)

Louise has just arrived.

BE (be, am, are, is, was, were, been)

Louise is working at the office today.

DO (do, does, did, done)

Do you need any rutabagas today?
I don't need any.
You do complain too much! (emphatic)

2. Modals (Modal)

can	could
will	would
may	might
shall (archaic)	should
	must
	had better

3. Catenatives or Semi-modals (Caten)

These are "two-part" auxiliaries, all of which end with *to*. These auxiliaries are often contracted in spoken English, as shown in the second column.

have to	"hafta"
ought to	"otta"
want to	"wanna"
used to	"usta"
need to	
dare to	

Prepositions (Prep)

Prepositions introduce *prepositional phrases* with a wide range of meanings. The examples below are not exhaustive.

location	on (the wall), beside (the house), over (the fence)
time	at (six o'clock), on (Thursday), after (the movie), before (dinner)
duration	for (two weeks)
instrument	with (a hammer), by (hand)
manner	with (pleasure), in (a hurry), like (a queen)
agency	by (Bill)
genitive	(Prime Minister) of (Canada)

Particles (Prt)

Particles often look like prepositions. However, they form a unit with a verb:

The demolitionist blew up the building.
The demolitionist blew the building up.

In the sentences above blew up is a two-word verb, and up is a particle.

Qualifiers (Qual)

Qualifiers can be said to qualify or intensify adjectives and adverbs. Although some textbooks treat qualifiers as adverbs, we will be careful to distinguish qualifiers from adverbs because of their special function.

very (old, quickly)
extremely (angry)
somewhat (pretty)
quite (busy)

Conjunctions

1. Coordinating Conjunctions (CoordConj)

and or but nor so for yet

2. Subordinating Conjunctions (SubConj)

because, although, while, since, so (under some circumstances) ...

3. Correlative Conjunctions (Correl)

either ... or
neither ... nor

Others

1. Negative Marker "not" (Neg)

Truth is not an easy thing to define.
You can't take a goldfish for a walk. (contracted form)

2. Infinitive Marker "to" (No label)

To err is human.
Alan's great love is to play cards.

3. Expletive "there" (Expl)

There is a hole in my tire.

4. Expletive "it" (Expl)

It usually rains in December.
It is easy to make potato salad.

5. Complementizer "that" (COMP)

It is obvious that Bart is a brat.
Bruce said that he would leave the door unlocked.

6. Miscellaneous cases

There are a number of less common types of words not covered in the sections above. Here are a few of them:

Interjections (Interj)

Oh!
Ouch!
Darn! (euphemism)
Shit! (vulgar)

Discourse particles (DiscPrt)

These words are often used when a speaker pauses while formulating an utterance or changes the topic of discussion.

> Well … I don't know what to say.
> So, what should we do for dinner?

Reaction signals (RS)

These are used in response to a prior question or remark.

> Were you at home on the night of April 12? … Yes.
> Are you asleep? … No.

3. INFLECTIONAL AND DERIVATIONAL AFFIXES

In this section we will consider labels that can be used to describe the structure of words themselves. Notice that these are *not* parsing labels, and we will not be using them when we parse sentences.

INFLECTIONAL MARKERS

English has eight inflectional affixes that all appear as suffixes. Adding an inflectional affix to a word does not change its part of speech; nor does it create a "new word." Rather, inflections are used as a grammatical device to mark things like number (for nouns) and person or tense (for verbs). If you find that an affix does not fit one of the eight types below, you can conclude that it is *not* an inflectional affix.

Noun Inflections

1. Plural marker (-Plur)

Most nouns can be pluralized, usually by adding '-s' or '-es.'

cat	cats
parsnip	parsnips
box	boxes

Irregular nouns form the plural in some other way.

child	children
mouse	mice
deer	deer

2. Genitive marker (-Gen)

The genitive of singular nouns is usually spelled by adding an apostrophe + 's.'

Jack's pencil
the cat's tail
the student's grades (one student)

Genitives of regular plural nouns are commonly spelled by adding 's' + an apostrophe.

the students' grades (more than one student)
her parents' house (it belongs to both parents)

The genitive is used to indicate a relationship between two nouns. Often this is a "possessive" relationship, but there are several other possibilities.

Quick Quiz: See whether you can describe the meaning of the genitive in each case below. Are any of the phrases ambiguous?

Jane's bike _____

Jane's hair _____

Jane's grades _____

Jane's mother _____

Jane's hometown _____

Jane's job _____

Jane's book _____

Jane's intelligence _____

Jane's reputation _____

Verb Inflections

3. Third person singular marker (-3PS)

This suffix is added to verbs in the present tense when the subject represents the third person singular. It is usually spelled as '-s' or '-es.'

(he, she, it, Mary) work<u>s</u>
(he, she, it, Mary) go<u>es</u>

A few verbs have irregular 3PS forms

be	is
have	has
do	does

4. The present participle suffix (-ing)

This present participle verb form has a variety of functions that will be discussed later in the course.

work	working
be	being
drive	driving

5. The past tense marker (-Past)

The regular past tense is usually spelled by adding '-d' or '-ed' to a verb.

work	worked
live	lived
wait	waited

A number of verbs and auxiliaries have irregular past tense forms

Verb	**Past Tense Form**
be	was, were
have	had
do	did
eat	ate
write	wrote
drive	drove

6. Past participle marker (-PaPl)

You can determine the past participle of a verb by identifying the form that occurs after 'have' in a sentence frame such as "I have _____."

Regular past participles look identical to regular past tense forms (i.e., they are spelled by adding '-d' or '-ed'), but they function differently.

(I have) work<u>ed</u>.
(I have) live<u>d</u>.
(I have) wait<u>ed</u>.

Irregular past participles are often different from past tense forms and may be formed in various ways.

Verb	**Past Tense Form**	**Past Participle Form**
be	was, were	been
have	had	had
do	did	done
eat	ate	eaten
write	wrote	written
drive	drove	driven

Adjective and Adverb Inflections

7. Comparative marker (-Compar)

The comparative forms of many adjectives and adverbs are created by adding '-er,' sometimes with minor spelling modifications.

old	older
tall	taller
busy	busier
fast	faster

8. Superlative marker (-Superl)

The superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs are typically created by adding '-est.'

old	oldest
tall	tallest
busy	busiest
fast	fastest

NOTE: A few adjectives and adverbs have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

Basic Form	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst

Some adjectives and adverbs (especially those of more than two syllables) have **periphrastic** comparative and superlative forms. These require the qualifiers 'more' and 'most.'

beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
intelligent	more intelligent	most intelligent

DERIVATIONAL AFFIXES

Derivational prefixes and suffixes are used to derive new words. Adding a derivational affix to a word will often (but not always) change its part of speech. English has hundreds of derivational affixes. Some are highly productive (i.e., used in many words); others are not. A few examples are given here. Note that these affixes may be analyzed in terms of the types of words they create, the types of words they may be added to, and the kinds of meanings they indicate.

Suffixes that derive new nouns:

-ity	generosity, sanity
-ant	inhabitant, servant

Suffixes that derive new verbs:

-ize	revolutionize, legalize
-ify	simplify, pacify

Suffixes that derive new adjectives:

-ous	courteous, bulbous
-ive	attractive, effective

Suffixes that derive new adverbs:

-ly	happily, quickly

-ward	backward

Agentive suffix (don't confuse with the comparative inflection):

-er	baker, worker

Diminutive suffixes:

-let	piglet, starlet
-ette	novelette, statuette

Reversative prefix:

un-	undo, untie

Degree prefixes:

super-	supernatural, supermarket
sub-	subordinate, subhuman

Negative prefix:

dis-	distrust, disallow, disobey

Exercises for Sections 2 and 3: Identifying Parts of Speech and Inflectional Markers

I. Parse each sentence by writing the appropriate labels on the line below. Use ONLY the following labels for the parts of speech:

N, GenN, PropN, Pro, DemonPro, IndPossPron, IndefArt, DefArt, DemonD, PossPronD, Aux, Modal, Caten, V, Prt, Adj, Adv, Qual, Prep, CoordConj, Neg, Expl

REMINDER: Note that *-Plur, -Gen, -3PS, -ing, -Past, -PaPl, -Compar, -Superl are not parsing labels. We will not use these symbols when parsing sentences in the exercises or on exams.*

1. January is the rainiest month.

_____

2. I'll see you after the office party.

_____

3. I really have to leave now.

_____

4. I wish you'd leave your window open.

_____

5. The slithy toves did gyre and gimbel in the wabe.

_____

6. That is the best vegetable soup I've ever tasted.

_____

7. It looks like a Picasso, but no one is completely sure.

_____

8. That cat has a sore leg.

_____

9. The bear has been catching fish and eating them.

_____

10. It's damn cold in Prince George this week.

_____

11. I called him up, but he wasn't there.

_____

12. Tony broke Rose's plate and felt very bad about it.

_____

13. She's hardly started work.

_____

14. I see you lost your pencil. Here's mine.

_____

15. Despite the rain, we went for a walk in Queen Elizabeth Park.

_____

II. How many different ways can each of the words below be used? Give a sentence illustrating each different use.

e.g., <u>just</u>
Adj: She's a <u>just</u> person.
Adv: She has <u>just</u> left.

1. will

2. well

3. light

4. way

5. wrong

6. pretty

III. Identify all the inflectional markers in the sentences below using the following inflectional labels:

-Plur, -Gen, -3PS, -ing, -Past, -PaPl, -Compar, -Superl

1. She's nearly completed the project.

2. It's time for Karen to analyze her data.

3. Joan's friends are coming over later.

4. The weather is more pleasant than we had expected.

5. Ralph’s a worldly person.

6. The mice’s tails have been cut off.

4. MULTI-WORD VERBS AND RELATED CONSTITUENCY ISSUES

Multi-word or "phrasal" verbs are combinations of verbs and particles that function together as constituents. They tend to have idiomatic meanings that cannot be easily predicted by considering the meanings of the words they comprise. Consider, for example, the differences in meaning conveyed by these expressions: *get up*, *get over*, *get by*, and *get after*.

In the following sentences, multi-word verbs function as VT and are followed by NP:DO:

a) Keith turned off the lights.
b) Christine thought over her answer to the problem.
c) Kevin puts up with the noise from downstairs.
d) Debbie is counting on a bull market.

Other multi-word verbs may function as VI:

e) After working on the puzzle for two hours, Judy gave up.
f) Katy worked out at the gym yesterday.

Some multi-word VTs are separable. The direct object may appear between the verb and particle:

g) Keith turned the lights off.
h) Christine thought the answer over.

When a separable multi-word VT has a pronoun object, the pronoun must occur between the V and the Prt.

i) Kevin turned them off.
j) * Kevin turned off them.
k) Christine thought it over.
l) *Christine thought over it.

Other multi-word verbs are inseparable.

m) *Kevin puts the noise up with.
n) *Kevin puts up the noise with.
o) *Debbie is counting a bull market on.

When analyzing sentences we are sometimes faced with the problem of deciding whether a structure is a V + Prt construction or a V + PP (prepositional phrase) construction.

p) George ran across a good article in a magazine. (V + Prt = VT)
q) George ran across the street. (VI + PP)
r) Francine turned down the volume. (V + Prt = VT)
s) Francine turned down the alley. (VI + PP)

Some clues for identifying V + Prt combinations.

1) Your intuitions may help you. In a sentence like p), "ran across" intuitively forms a constituent, and it seems fairly natural to pause briefly after "across." In sentence q) "across the street" intuitively forms a constituent, and it seems fairly natural to pause after "ran."

2) If the verb and the following word can be separated by an intervening object, the structure is V + Prt. Remember, however, that not all V + Prt structures are separable.

3) If you can attach a PP parallel to the existing structure, then it is a V + PP.

    t) George ran <u>across the street</u> and <u>into the store</u>. (across the street = PP)
    u) *George ran <u>across a good article</u> and <u>into a good story</u>. (across a good article is not a PP)

4) PP structures can sometimes move around in a sentence. Moving a Prt and the NP following it often results in an ungrammatical structure.

    v) <u>Across the street</u> George ran. (across the street = PP)
    w) *Across a good article George ran.

5) You can often insert a manner adverb between a V and a PP following it. However, you usually can't place a manner adverb between a V and a Prt.

    x) George ran quickly (angrily, hurriedly) across the street.
    y) *George ran quickly (*angrily, *hurriedly) across an article.

6) V + Prt structures can often be replaced in a sentence by a single verb.

    z) Keith <u>turned off</u> the lights = Keith <u>extinguished</u> the lights.
    aa) Christine <u>thought over</u> her answers = Christine <u>pondered</u> her answers.
    bb) Kevin <u>puts up with</u> the noise = Kevin <u>tolerates</u> the noise.

5. STATUS OF VERBS: TENSE, ASPECT, AND VOICE

1. Verbs in English are traditionally said to have five forms or "parts."

Parts of the verb	Remarks	Examples
base form	can occur after *to*	work, eat, write
3rd person singular	can occur after *she*, *he*, or *it*	works, eats, writes
present participle	always ends in *-ing*	working, eating, writing
past tense	occurs without an auxiliary	worked, ate, wrote
past participle	can occur after *have*	worked, eaten, written

2. The main verb constituent (MV) is the unit containing the verb and any auxiliaries.

3. English is usually said to have two "morphological tenses": present and past. The tense can generally be determined by looking at the first word in the MV.

Tense	Examples
present tense	works, is eating, have been writing
past tense	worked, had eaten, had been writing

It's very important to understand that *tense* and *time* are not the same thing. *Tense* is a grammatical notion. Different languages may use tenses in very different ways. *Time*, on the other hand, refers to concept that is common to all human experience. It is understood in terms of past, present, and future. The relationship between tense and time is not straightforward. For instance, in English we have no morphological future tense. But that certainly doesn't mean that we can't talk about future time. Here are some examples:

I'm leaving tomorrow. (present tense, future time)
I will leave tomorrow. (modal "will," future time)
Yesterday, he told me that he wasn't leaving till next week. (past tense, future time)

Here is another illustration of the complexity of the tense and time relationship:

I have already finished my homework. (present tense, past time)

Quick Quiz: What, in your opinion, are the past tense and past participle forms of the following verbs? Are there any that you are unsure of? Why?

Verb	Past tense	Past Participle
shrink		
bid		
stink		
hang		
sneak		

lie

lay

swing

forsake

thrive

shoe

4. Some MVs contain a modal.

Examples: will work, should have worked, might have been working

Do modals have tense?

You should be aware that some textbooks (including Morenberg) consider modals to have present forms (e.g., can, will, shall) and past forms (could, would, should). This seems to make sense in pairs such as the following:

This year she can run a mile in five minutes. (present ability)
Last year she could run a mile in six minutes. (past ability)

Although we will follow Morenberg's approach, analyzing modals strictly in this way doesn't buy us much in terms of helping us understand them. Modals convey a wide range of meanings, many of which have little to do with present versus past time. The difference between can and could, for instance, is different in many respects from the distinction between walk and walked. How would you characterize the distinctions that are made in these sentences?

Can you open the window, please?
Could you open the window, please?
Would you open the window, please?

We'll consider some ways of describing the meanings of modals later.

5. The two kinds of aspect are progressive (also called continuous) and perfective.

Progressive aspect can be recognized by the presence of the following:

be + present participle (ing form) of the verb
be + ... + ing

She **is** driv**ing**. (present tense + progressive aspect)
She **was** driv**ing**. (past tense + progressive aspect)
She may **be** driv**ing**. (present modal + progressive aspect)

Perfective aspect can be recognized by the presence of the following:

have + past participle of the verb
have + ... + ed/en/etc.

She **has** driv**en**. (present tense + perfective aspect)
She **had** driv**en**. (past tense + perfective aspect)
She may **have** driv**en**. (present modal + perfective aspect)

6. When both kinds of aspect are evident, the auxiliary indicating the perfective (*have*) precedes.

She **has** been driving. (present tense + perfective aspect + progressive aspect)
She **had** been driving. (past tense + perfective aspect + progressive aspect)
She may **have** been driving. (present modal + perfective aspect + progressive aspect)

7. Voice may be active or passive.

Active voice

In active sentences, the subject is often the "doer of an action."

The legislature passed a law.

Passive voice

In passive sentences, the subject often undergoes an action. The doer of the action is indicated in a prepositional phrase beginning with 'by,' or it may be omitted.

A law was passed by the legislature.
A law was passed.

Passive voice may be recognized by the presence of the following:

be + past participle of the verb
be + ... + ed/en/etc.

She **is** driv**en** (by George). (simple present tense, passive voice)
A law **was** pass**ed** (by the legislature). (simple past tense, passive voice)

8. When the passive voice is used together with one or both kinds of aspect, the auxiliary indicating the passive (be) comes last before the verb.

She is **being** driven. (present tense + progressive aspect + passive voice)
She has been **being** driven. (present tense + perf. aspect + prog. aspect + passive voice)

9. Here is a summary table, showing examples of the possible combinations of tense, aspect and voice.

Tense	**Aspect**	**Active Voice**	**Passive Voice**
simple present	–	she works	she is driven
present	progressive	she is working	she is being driven
present	perfect	she has worked	she has been driven
present	perfect progressive	she has been working	she has been being driven

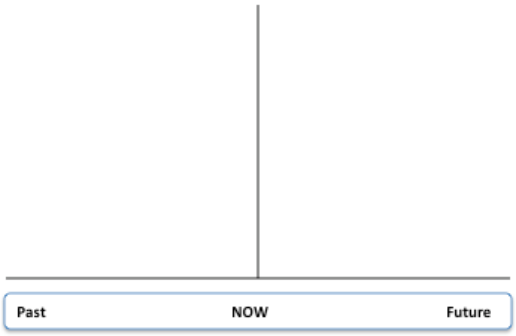
simple past	–	she worked	she was driven
past	progressive	she was working	she was being driven
past	perfect	she had worked	she had been driven
past	perfect progressive	she had been working	she had been being driven

Notice that the present perfect progressive passive and the past perfect progressive passive are quite cumbersome structures, and they are rarely used in spoken or written English. However, they are grammatical, and it is not difficult to imagine contexts in which these forms might be appropriate.

6. USING ENGLISH TENSE AND ASPECT

In this section, we will summarize a few of the common uses of various tense/aspect combinations. You should be aware that we have omitted many possibilities. In each case, consider the ways in which we might represent tense and aspect on the graph.

1. Simple present



a) Information presented as a fact (even if it isn't true!)

The sky is blue.
Ron lives in Toronto.
Grass is usually orange.

b) Repeated or habitual actions

I get up at seven every day.
Judy always drinks coffee for breakfast.

c) Senses, perceptions, and desires

I smell garlic.
Susie hears music playing.
I want mustard in my sandwich.

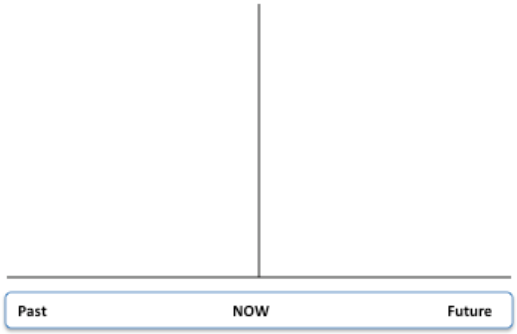
d) Future events (especially scheduled events)

The plane leaves tomorrow at seven.
Next week, Alan gets new office furniture.

e) Narrative descriptions

First, she gets on the plane. Then she meets a stranger. (describing a story, film, etc.)

2. Present progressive



a) Actions occurring at the present moment

Don't bother me! I'm talking on the phone. (cf. I talk on the phone all the time.)
She's sitting in the back of the room.

b) Actions occurring intermittently over a period that encompasses the present time. Such actions may or may not be in progress at the actual moment of speaking.

Frederick is writing a novel.
They're shooting a new film on the island.

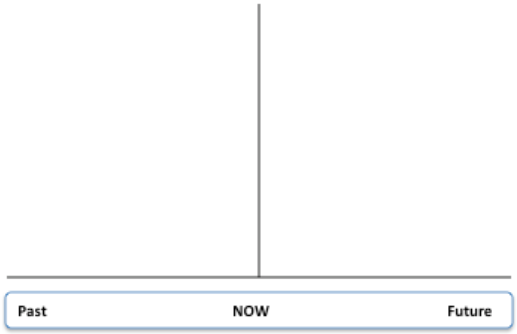
c) Future events

They're leaving first thing in the morning.
Carol is moving next month.

d) Narratives about past actions

So yesterday I'm walking down Main Street, and I see this guy with a parrot.
He's carrying the parrot on his shoulder.

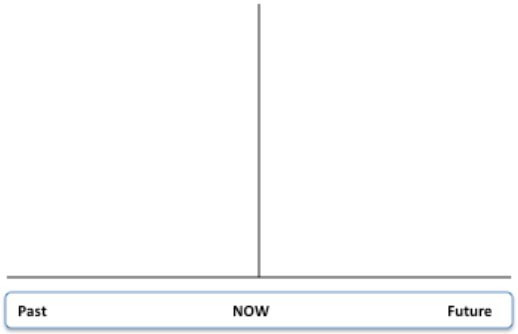
3. Simple past



Actions or states at a specified or unspecified point in the past

Nancy ate breakfast.
Nancy ate breakfast at 6:30.
Nancy ate breakfast two hours ago.
Richard was tired.

4. Past progressive



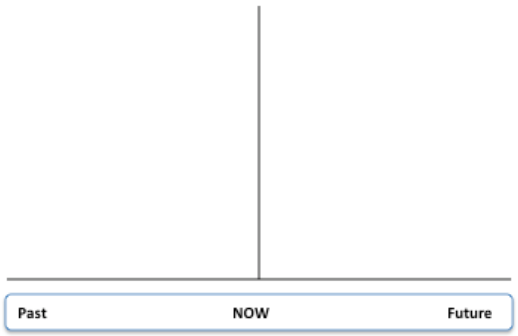
a) Actions or states in progress at a specified time or period of time in the past

Jim was sleeping when the earthquake occurred.
What were you doing at 10 PM on the night of the murder?

b) Statements about the past in which the duration of an activity is emphasized.

I was driving for over 10 hours!
Joe was eating out of a can for six weeks!

5. Present perfect



a) Events and states that began in the past, have continued to the present time, and have some likelihood of continuing into the future.

Ann has lived in Vancouver for many years. (cf. Ann lived in Vancouver for many years.)

b) Events occurring within <u>a time frame</u> that began in the past and that continues up to the moment of speaking. Such events have at least a possibility of recurring in or persisting into the future.

Alice Munro has written many short stories. (cf. ?Shakespeare has written many plays.)

I've graded 72 essays so far this week.

He has lived in Toronto, Calgary, and Winnipeg, though he now lives in Ottawa.
(cf. He lived in Toronto, Calgary, and Winnipeg, but now he's dead.)
(cf. *He has lived in Toronto, Calgary and Winnipeg, but now he's dead.)

He has never eaten escargots. (He hasn't eaten them *so far* in his life, but he might do so at some time in the future.)

Have you ever traveled in a balloon? (The time frame of interest extends from the beginning of the addressee's life to the moment of speaking.)

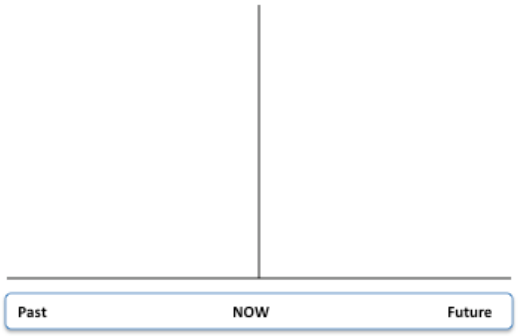
c) Events from the recent past that have some relevance to the present.

The doughnuts have just arrived.
Frank has finished his paperwork.

The present perfect is not used for a single event when a point in time is specified.

The letter arrived at six. (cf. * The letter has arrived at six.)
Caroline studied last night. (cf. * Caroline has studied last night).

6. Past perfect



a) Events occurring before and lasting until a particular time in the past

By June of last year, Rose had saved $500.

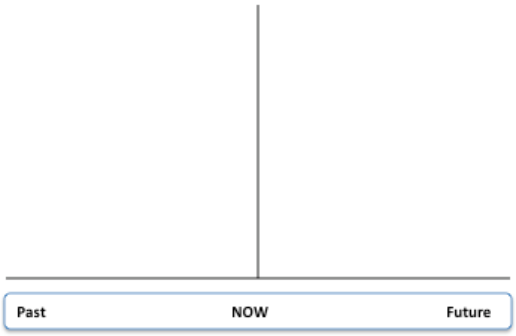
b) Events occurring within a time frame that began and ended in the past.

By June of last year, Rose had lived in Toronto, Calgary and Winnipeg.
By June of last year, Rose had never eaten escargots.

c) Events occurring immediately before a particular time in the past

Julia Child had finished cooking when Jacques Pepin arrived.

7. Present perfect progressive and past perfect progressive



These can often substitute for the present perfect and past perfect. They emphasize that the event occurred over time.

I have been working for hours. (cf. I've worked for hours.)
Julia had been cooking for hours when Jacques arrived.

Practice Exercise II: Analyzing Verbs

Underline the complete MV in each sentence. Indicate the verb type (VI, VT, Vc, etc.), and then list the mood, modals, tense, aspect, and voice. If any of these is missing, write "none."

1. George reported the accident.

   Mood: Modals: Tense:
   Aspect: Voice:

2. Several of the trees in our yard were severely damaged by the storm.

   Mood: Modals: Tense:
   Aspect: Voice:

3. Why have the doors been left open again?

   Mood: Modals: Tense:
   Aspect: Voice:

4. Jim may have forgotten to give you a call.

   Mood: Modals: Tense:
   Aspect: Voice:

5. Has the car been running well?

   Mood: Modals: Tense:
   Aspect: Voice:

6. Didn't you put the cat outside last night?

   Mood: Modals: Tense:
   Aspect: Voice:

7. That shirt is quite becoming on you.

   Mood: Modals: Tense:
   Aspect: Voice:

8. On Tuesday, I will have been living here for seven years.

   Mood: Modals: Tense:
   Aspect: Voice:

9. I'm always being paged!

   Mood: Modals: Tense:
   Aspect: Voice:

10. Have you been helped?

    Mood: Modals: Tense:
    Aspect: Voice:

11. The dissidents are gradually being eliminated.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

12. Give me one reason to stay here.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

13. Carol doesn't like working overtime.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

14. She's only been home a week.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

15. Jill has just gotten over a cold.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

16. Jack hates cooking dinner.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

17. Pass me the salt, please.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

18. Our customers are always treated with courtesy.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

19. The fridge hadn't been cleaned in over a month.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

20. She must have been worrying all evening.

Mood: Modals: Tense:
Aspect: Voice:

7. MOOD AND MODALS

Mood

1. Indicative: statements

Flynn played Robin Hood in the movie.

2. Interrogative: questions

Are you busy?
What time is it?
You're busy?

3. Imperative: instructions and commands

Get up!
Have some pie.

4. Conditional: expressions of possibility, probability, necessity, desire, doubt, obligation and other related notions.

You shouldn't buy a leaky condo.
He may be right.

Uses of Modals

Modals convey many kinds of meanings, some of which differ from each other in quite subtle ways. As a result, modals are sometimes difficult to talk about and difficult for ESL learners to acquire. To make matters even more complicated, sentences with modals are often ambiguous – they may sometimes be interpreted in more than one way, depending on the context. Three particular kinds of meanings are described below:

1. <u>Epistemic</u> meaning has to do with the speaker's (or writer's) belief about some possible or necessary state of affairs.

Sentence	***Interpretation***
Tomorrow it <u>might</u> rain.	*The speaker believes that rain is possible (though he or she does not know for sure).*
Joe's coat is on the rack. He <u>must</u> be in his office.	*The speaker can infer that Joe is in his office because his coat is here.*
I can't find my keys. I <u>may</u> have left them in the car.	*The speaker judges that it is possible that the keys were left in the car.*

2. **Deontic** meaning has to do with the speaker's intention to influence someone or something. When a modal has this type of meaning it typically indicates advice, permission, or an instruction by the speaker to do something.

Sentence	***Interpretation***
Anna can have another cookie if she likes.	*The speaker gives Anna permission to have another cookie.*
I'm not interested in talking to you. You must leave right now!	*The speaker orders you to leave now.*
Elaine should get more rest. She looks tired.	*The speaker recommends that Elaine get more rest.*

3. **Dynamic** meanings typically indicate ability or willingness. Rather than reflecting the speaker's belief or desire to influence, modals with this kind of meaning generally refer to facts outside the speaker's judgment or control.

Sentence	***Interpretation***
Frank can play hockey very well.	*He has the ability to play hockey well.*
George won't help me fix the washer.	*George refuses to assist me.*

Prescriptive Note: It is sometimes claimed that "can" is not be used to indicate permission (i.e., in the deontic sense). In fact, "can" is almost universally used with that meaning in WCE and other varieties of English spoken in North America.

Quick Quiz

State whether the modals in these sentences have epistemic (E), deontic (DE), or dynamic (DY) meanings. Which ones are ambiguous?

1. There's a fly in the kitchen. You shouldn't have left the window open. _____
2. If you have difficulty, Wilbur will assist you. _____
3. You may kiss the bride. _____
4. Her eyes are red. She must have been crying. _____
5. I can open that door for you. _____
6. There might be some chocolate cake in the fridge. _____
7. There must be a better way to make a living than telemarketing. _____
8. When I was younger, I could run 10 kilometres with no difficulty. _____
9. You can't be serious! _____
10. May I have another chocolate, darling? _____

8. CONSTRUCTING NOUN PHRASES

Every noun phrase must have at least one noun or pronoun, which is its *head*. The other words in the NP are called attributes. They may indicate the definiteness of the head, quantify it, or provide other descriptive information about it. In English, most attributes precede the head, and if there are several attributes, only certain word orders are grammatical. Determiners, for example, come first.

Types of attributes

1. Determiner (Det)

a) Articles

DefArt: the
IndefArt: a, an

b) Demonstrative Determiners (DemonD)

this, that, these, those

c) Possessive Pronoun Determiners (PossPronD)

my, your, his, her, its, our, their

d) Numbers

Cardinal numbers (CardN): one, two, three
Ordinal numbers (OrdN): first, second, next, last

e) Prearticles (PreArt)

partitives: all (of), some (of), neither (of)
quantifiers: a pound of, a slice of
multipliers: once, twice, half,

2. Genitive Nouns (GenN)

3. Adjectives (Adj)

These are of several types, including those indicating size (*big, small*), shape (*round, square*), colour (*blue, red*) and temperature (*hot, cool*). Proper adjectives (a *French* restaurant) are generally capitalized. (We will simply label these *Adj*.) Of course there are many other possibilities.

4. Nouns (N)

Nouns can modify other nouns. All the following are N N structures.

telephone directory
aircraft commander
laundry detergent

5. Modifiers that follow the noun

a) Postnominal modifiers (PostN)
all, both, each

b) Prepositional phrases (PP)

c) Others

9. NEGATION

To build a negative construction out of an affirmative one, you must add the NEG marker ("not"). The general rule to remember is that if the MV is not BE or does not contain an Aux or Modal, you must also add an Aux (some form of *do*). The addition of *do* is called *do-support*.

With BE as a simple MV, insert NEG after BE.

The cat **is** lazy.	The cat **is not** lazy.	The cat **isn't** lazy.
Liz **was** a teacher.	Liz **was not** a teacher.	Liz **wasn't** a teacher.

When one or more Auxs are already present because of the perfective or progressive aspect or the passive voice, insert NEG after the first AUX.

Joan **has** left.	Joan **has not** left.	Joan **hasn't** left.
Alan **is** writing a screenplay.	Alan **is not** writing a screenplay.	Alan **isn't** writing a screenplay.
Ken **has been** living in Regina.	Ken **has not been** living in Regina.	Ken **hasn't been** living in Regina.
The barn **was** struck by lightning.	The barn **was not** struck by lightning.	The barn **wasn't** struck by lightning.

When a modal is already present, insert NEG after the modal, but before other auxiliaries.

Mark **can** read Hebrew.	Mark **cannot** read Hebrew.	Mark **can't** read Hebrew.
Karen **should have** visited us.	Karen **should not have** visited us.	Karen **shouldn't have** visited us.

With simple verbs other than BE, add the appropriate form of DO and then NEG.

Sam **likes** Scotch.	Sam **does not** like Scotch.	Sam **doesn't** like Scotch.
Carol **ate** the apple.	Carol **did not** eat the apple.	Carol **didn't** eat the apple.

With simple catenatives, add the appropriate form of DO and then NEG.

Diane **has to** leave.	Diane **does not have to** leave.	Diane **doesn't have to** leave.
Mike **needs to** rest.	Mike **does not need to** rest.	Mike **doesn't need to** rest.

10. INTERROGATION

Forming questions out of indicative sentences involves some of the same procedures as negation. The main rule to remember is that if the MV of the indicative sentence contains no Aux, Modal, or BE, do-support is typically required.

1. Yes/no questions

To construct yes/no interrogatives out of indicative sentences, you must move the Aux, Modal, or BE (usually with NEG, if it is present) to the beginning of the sentence.

Everyone **is** waiting for Andrew.	**Is** everyone waiting for Andrew?
Jeff **can** skate well	**Can** Jeff skate well?
The party **hasn't** begun.	**Hasn't** the party begun? (cf. **Has** the party **not** begun?)
Gates **is** a billionaire.	**Is** Gates a billionaire?

If the sentence does not contain an Aux, Modal, or BE, you must add one. With declarative sentences containing simple MVs other than BE and those containing catenatives, put the appropriately-tensed form of DO at the beginning of the sentence and change the MV or catenative to its base form.

Steve Jobs **detests** Microsoft.	**Does** Steve Jobs **detest** Microsoft?
The Daily Show **won** an Emmy.	**Did** *The Daily Show* **win** an Emmy?
He **has to** take a stand.	**Does** he **have to** take a stand?

2. WH-questions

WH-questions require WH-words as shown in the next table. Unless the interrogated unit is NP:Subj, they also require the addition of the appropriate form of 'do' when no Aux, Modal, or BE is present in the MV. Note that that WH-word generally appears at the beginning of the interrogative, followed by the Aux, Modal, or BE.

There are three types of WH-words:

Interrogative Pronoun (IntPro): replaces a NP.
Interrogative Pro-Adverb (IntProAdv): replaces an adverbial unit (Adv, PP:Adv, NP:Adv or infinitive phrase functioning as an adverbial).
Interrogative Pro-Determiner (IntProD): replaces a determiner.

The following chart summarizes the possible wh-question types.

Interrogated phrase or word	WH-word	Role of WH-word	Example	
NP (human)	IntPro who	NP: Subj*	**Jim** sits in the back.	**Who** sits in the back?
	IntPro who(m)	NP: DO	You saw **Jim**.	**Who(m)** did you see?
	IntPro who(m)	NP: IO	Maureen gave the package to **Don**.	**Who(m)** did Maureen give the package to?

*Do-support is not required when the interrogated unit is the NP:Subj.

NP (non-human)	IntPro what	NP: Subj*	**The candle** sits on the mantle.	**What** sits on the mantle?
		NP: DO	She saw **a UFO**.	**What** did she see?
	IntPro which	NP: DO	He picked **the green one**.	**Which** did he pick?
Adv (time)	IntProAdv when	Adverbial	She left **at two**.	**When** did she leave?
Adv (manner)	IntProAdv how	Adverbial	He left **quietly**.	**How** did he leave?
Adv (place)	IntProAdv where	Adverbial	She lives **in Burnaby**.	**Where** does she live?
Adv (frequency)	IntProAdv how often	Adverbial	She exercises **twice a week.**	**How often** does she exercise?
Adv (reason)	IntProAdv why	Adverbial	She called him **to hear his voice.**	**Why** did she call him?
Det	IntProD which	Det	She likes **this** house.	**Which** house does she like?
	IntProD whose	Det	He wants **your** number.	**Whose** number does he want?
	IntProD what	Det	I should take **the second** bus**.**	**What** bus should I take?

Practice Exercise III: Rearranging and Compounding

A. Parse each sentence. Then identify all of its <u>major</u> NPs and all PPs.

1. Why did you leave the empty bowl in the fridge?

_____

2. Where are my slippers?

_____

3. Which colour do you prefer?

_____

4. Is there a fly in your soup?

_____

5. The fly in my soup is dead.

_____

6. She had a lot of money, so she bought some new shoes.

_____

7. He climbed on his bicycle and rode down the path.

_____

8. Were they working or taking a break?

_____

9. Did you tell Frank and Joe the good news?

_____

10. Whose computer got stolen?

_____

B. Parse each sentence below and then identify its voice. If it is passive, convert it to its active form. If it is active, convert it to its passive form.

1. Marilyn sent a package of documents to Jerry.

_____

2. Your luggage somehow got shipped to Albania.

_____

3. The gold medal had been kept in a safe prior to the event.

_____

4. Isn't she driving her parents crazy with her choices in music?

_____

5. Her garden was being designed by an expert.

_____

6. Haven't you been contacted by the company yet?

_____

7. Gwendolyn was awarded first prize in the school's music competition.

_____

8. Fred was throwing out the trash.

_____

9. Why didn't the mechanic replace your muffler?

_____

10. The band's new CD has been called boring.

_____

11. MORE ON QUESTIONS

In section 10 we noted that wh-questions are generally formed by replacing interrogated units with wh-words and by moving the wh-words, along with Aux or BE to the front of the clause. When no Aux or BE is present, *do-support* is required. However, some other commonly-occurring question types use *formulaic expressions*. The syntax of these questions is somewhat different: *do-support* is not necessary and there is no fronting of Aux or BE. Consider the structure of the following questions. Note that the material following each formulaic expression is a clause with normal word order.

1. Questions with "*how come"*

    How come the door is open?
    (Why is the door open?)

    How come the dog won't eat his dinner?
    (Why won't the dog eat his dinner?)

    How come you're hiding that box under the bed?
    (Why are you hiding that box under the bed?)

2. Questions with *"_____ is it that…"*

    What is it that you need?
    (What do you need?)

    Why is it that you think I'm wrong?
    (Why do you think I'm wrong?)

    How is it that George got a raise from his stingy boss?
    (How did George get a raise from his stingy boss?)

    Where is it that I should turn?
    (Where should I turn?)

12. CLAUSE AND SENTENCE TYPES

Traditionally, clauses are classified as either independent (those that can stand on their own as "complete ideas") or dependent (subordinate clauses that cannot stand alone because they depend upon another idea). A sentence may consist of a single clause or two or more clauses connected together through coordination or subordination. Traditional grammar books identify four sentence types.

Simple — *A single independent clause. Note that simple sentences can contain compound units such as compound NPs and VPs.*

The bird sang sweetly.
The sparrow and the chickadee sang sweetly.
The bird landed on a branch and sang sweetly.
The bird landed on a branch, ate a delicious caterpillar, and flew away.

Compound — *Two or more independent clauses joined by one or more coordinating conjunctions.*

The bird sang, and the bee buzzed.
The bird landed on the branch, so the caterpillar tried to crawl away.

Complex — *One independent clause with one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses.*

When the bird landed on the branch, the caterpillar tried to run away.
When the bird landed on the branch, the caterpillar, who had been dozing, tried to crawl away.

Compound-Complex — *More than one independent clause accompanied by at least one dependent (subordinate) clause.*

When the caterpillar moved, the bird tried to eat him, but the cat, who had been sitting on the roof, jumped down and caught the bird.

13. SOME EXAMPLES OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

Noun		Chicken Little thought $_{NCL}$[that the sky was falling.]
		$_{NCL}$[What he told Turkey Lurkey] was quite frightening.
		The fact $_{NCL}$[that he was hysterical] soon became apparent.
Noun modifier		The house $_{RELCL}$[that stands on the corner] is made of straw.
		The old goose, $_{RELCL}$[who was swimming on the pond], became alarmed.
Adverb	(time)	$_{ADVCL}$[When the farmer entered the barn], the pigs stopped their poker game.
	(cause)	Red Riding Hood was frightened $_{ADVCL}$ [because the wolf had big teeth].
	(condition)	$_{ADVCL}$ [If you need a spinning wheel], we'll find you one.
	(concession)	$_{ADVCL}$ [Although the wolf was tired], he tried to blow down the house.
	(manner)	The pig grunted $_{ADVCL}$ [as though he needed food].
	(purpose)	The hen picked the wheat $_{ADVCL}$ [so that she could make some bread].

14. NON-FINITE VERBALS

Non-finite verbals are verb-like units that do not function as the MV of a sentence. They do not have tense, though they may have aspect. They can occur in both the active and the passive voices.

Jack is imagining the future.	MV = is imagining
The man imagining the future is Jack.	MV = is
Imagining the future, Jack wasted the whole afternoon.	MV = wasted
Imagining the future is a waste of time.	MV = is
To imagine the future is a waste of time.	MV = is

I. Participles

Participles and participial phrases tend to function as adjectival modifiers that are closely connected with an NP.

The woman writing the novel is Jane.
Tony is the guy fixing the sink.
The tree damaged by the wind is in the back yard.

Aspect and voice of participles

The simple active and simple passive participles are the most common types. However, more complex types sometimes occur, particularly in written English. Note that the participle (present or past) is always named according to the form of the first word of the non-finite verbal. In the examples below, the underlined portion is the participle itself; the italicized portion is the full participial phrase.

simple active present participle	The woman *writing the novel* is Jane.
perfective, active present participle	*Having written twelve pages*, Jane stopped working.
perfective, progressive, active present participle	*Having been writing for ten years*, Jane was very experienced.
simple passive present participle	The book *being written by Jane* is a suspense novel.
perfective, passive present participle	*Having been written over thirty years ago*, the computer manual was outdated.
past participle	The novel *written by Jane* is delightful.

II. Gerunds

Gerunds function as nouns, and, within the sentence, gerund phrases behave as NPs. In the examples below, the underlined portion is the gerund itself; the italicized portion is the full gerund phrase. Each italicized unit is also an NP.

Kayaking is a very enjoyable sport.
Marilyn prefers *swimming with her friends*.
Grace thanked him by *offering him dinner*.

Quickly finishing his work is Fred's specialty.
Ted's leaving the company surprised us.
My leaving the company surprised them.

Aspect and voice of gerunds

simple active gerund	She regrets *sleeping all day*.
perfective active gerund	She regrets *having slept all day*.
perfective progressive active gerund	She regrets *having been sleeping* (when you called).
simple passive gerund	The cat hates *being bathed*.
perfective passive gerund	The cat hates *having been bathed*.

III. Infinitives

Infinitives and the phrases they belong to can play a variety of roles within the sentence. In the examples below, the underlined portion is the infinitive itself; the italicized portion is the full infinitive phrase.

Infinitive NPs

To err is human.
Keiko prefers *to stay at home*.
Jack's goal is *to complete the work before Tuesday.*

Quick Quiz

Complete the following checklist, indicating which verbs can take a gerund object, which can take an infinitive object, and which can take both. Note any problems that arise in your classification.

	Gerund	**Infinitive**	**Both**
begin			
mind			
expect			
refuse			
endeavor			
stop			
remember			
intend			
can't bear			
dislike			

Additional examples of infinitive constructions

She took Broad Street <u>*to avoid*</u> *the heavy traffic*.
She took Broad Street <u>*in order to*</u> *avoid the heavy traffic*.

John is eager <u>*to leave*</u>.
The waterfall is wonderful <u>*to see*</u>.

<u>*To visit*</u> *Peru* is Carol's fondest wish.
It is Carol's fondest wish <u>*to visit*</u> *Peru*.

<u>*To see*</u> *the waterfall at night* is marvelous.
It is marvelous <u>*to see*</u> *the waterfall at night*.

It is unusual for Fido <u>*to ignore*</u> *his dinner*.

Aspect and voice of infinitives

(simple active)	Chauncey loves <u>*to watch*</u> *television*.
(perfective active)	By the time I'm sixty, I intend <u>*to have travelled*</u> *around the world*.

(progressive active)	He likes *to be working in his garden*.
(perfective progressive active)	*To have been living in Provence for a year* must have been wonderful.
(simple passive)	Move to Nebraska? I'd prefer *to be eaten by sharks*!
(perfective passive)	I would like *to have been introduced to your friend*.

Practice Exercise V: Analyzing Non-finite Verbals

Instructions:

a) Parse each sentence.
b) Bracket all the participial, gerund and infinitive phrases.
c) For participial phrases (and participles that stand alone as modifiers), identify the noun modified (i.e., the logical subject of the participle).
d) Indicate the role in the sentence played by all gerund phrases and infinitive phrases. (NP: Subj, NP: DO, NP: ObjPrep, Adv, Comp to Adj, Comp to NP, etc.)

1. Watering the plants daily is his responsibility.

_____

2. Rebecca plans to run three miles before heading to work.

_____

3. He's returning to the hotel early to get ready for an exciting evening.

_____

4. Purring loudly, the kitten jumped into my lap.

_____

5. In an effort to reduce crime on the downtown east side, the city is sending out more police officers.

_____

6. With all that RAM, I can have many programs run simultaneously on my laptop.

_____

7. A lot of energy is needed for running a marathon.

_____

8. Alan will find practicing Zen a valuable experience.

_____

9. Last night the neighbour's dog's barking disturbed my sleep.

_____

10. An injection is now available to prevent the flu that's going around.

_____

11. She has a term paper to write by next week.

_____

12. He annoys me with his constant complaining about everything going on in the neighbourhood.

_____

13. Dee wants to learn to write romance novels.

_____

14. Zoe likes to do cryptic crossword puzzles to keep her mind active.

_____

15. When I saw the damaged window, I began to suspect that something was wrong.

_____

16. They do the community a service by working in the soup kitchen.

_____

17. I don't intend to drink coffee after eight.

_____

18. To have loved and lost is sad.

_____

19. However, it is sadder not to have loved at all.

_____

20. On hearing about his promotion, Ken's first impulse was to open a bottle of Champagne.

_____

21. It's easy for him to get to work on the bus.

_____

22. Flying planes can be dangerous.

_____

23. It's unusual to see traffic on our street.

_____

24. She left during the night.

_____

25. Ned abhors vacuuming.

_____

15. THE SECRET LIFE OF NON-FINITE VERBALS

When you are parsing sentences containing a gerund, infinitive, or participle, you should use the labels Ger, Inf, PresPart, and PastPart. The sentence below contains a gerund:

PropN	VT	Ger	Prep	DefArt	N
Gene	enjoys	singing	in	the	rain.

However, it is important to recognize that non-finite verbal phrases have internal structure and logic. The preceding example contains a gerund phrase ("singing in the rain") that functions as DO and that has the following components:

Gene = the logical subject of the gerund
singing = Ger (VI)
in the rain = PP (adverbial modifier)

To provide a thorough analysis, include the verbal type in parentheses as in the parsing below:

PropN	VT	Ger (VI)	Prep	DefArt	N
Gene	enjoys	singing	in	the	rain.

Additional examples:

PropN	VT	Ger (VT)	PossPronD	N	Prep	DefArt	N
Debbie	likes	walking	her	dog	in	the	rain.

The gerund phrase (walking her dog in the rain) plays the role of DO in the sentence.

Debbie = the logical subject of the gerund
walking = Ger (VT)
her dog = NP:DO of the gerund
in the rain = PP (adverbial modifier)

DefArt	N	VT	Inf (BE)	Adj
The	cat	hates	to be	uncomfortable.

The infinitive phrase (to be uncomfortable) plays the role of DO in the sentence.

The cat = the logical subject of the infinitive
to be = Inf (BE)
uncomfortable = PAdj within the infinitive phrase

Practice Exercise VI: Verbs, Participles, and Gerunds

Determine the status of the underlined words in the sentences below. For verbs, use the labels VI, VT, etc. For participles, use PresPart(type) or PastPart(type). For preposed participles, use Adj. For gerunds, use Ger(type).

1. Making money is the only thing that interests him.

2. You should let sleeping dogs lie.

3. Speak loudly so the people sitting in the back can hear you.

4. You can press your shirt on this ironing board.

5. A great deal of the information posted on *Wikipedia* is false.

6. Was the big pot simmering on the stove?

7. The chef tossed the vegetables into the big pot simmering on the stove.

8. That simmering pot looks very inviting.

9. Today's featured speaker is from Chile.

10. She seems to enjoy making people angry.

11. Wandering down the path, he ran across a large toad.

12. After wandering down the path, he decided to take a swim.

13. He started wandering down the path.

16. NOUN CLAUSES

Noun clauses, bracketed below with the label "$_{NCL}$," fit one of two general categories:

1. "that" clauses

Although "that clauses" begin with "that," they are not relative clauses. Instead they function as nouns and can play such roles as NP: Subj, NP: DO, or NP: PN. Furthermore, in these structures, "that" functions as a COMP, rather than as a RelPron.

$_{NCL}$[That the politician is corrupt] is obvious. (NP: Subj)
He believed $_{NCL}$ [that the truth would come out]. (NP: DO)
The trouble is $_{NCL}$ [that the leader has no charisma]. (NP: PN)

It is often idiomatic to extrapose noun clauses:

It is obvious $_{NCL}$ [that the politician is corrupt].

In the example above, "it" is an Expl playing the role of grammatical subject of the sentence. The extraposed noun clause is the logical subject, but has taken the role of Comp to Adj. In the case below, the noun clause moves to become Comp to NP:

$_{NCL}$ [That Joe lost the election] surprised everyone.
It surprised everyone $_{NCL}$ [that Joe lost the election].

In many instances, COMP can be deleted:

He believed $_{NCL}$ [that the truth would come out].
He believed $_{NCL}$ [the truth would come out].

COMP-deletion cannot occur when the noun clause functions as NP: Subj:

$_{NCL}$ [That he will lead the party] is obvious.
*He will lead the party is obvious.

2. Wh-clauses

These are noun clauses beginning with such wh-subordinators (WhSub) as what, who, when, where, why, whether, how, how often, and a few others.

$_{NCL}$ [What Ken wants] is a good meal.

In the example above, <u>what Ken wants</u> functions as the NP:Subj of the sentence. Note also that within the noun clause <u>Ken</u> has the role of NP:Subj, <u>wants</u> is a VT, and <u>what</u> has the role of NP: DO.

Practice Exercise VII: Analyzing Wh-Clauses

In the following sentences, bracket each Wh-clause. Then underline the WhSub and state its role within the clause (NP: Subj, NP: DO, Adv, etc.). Also state the role of the clause (NP: Subj; NP: DO, etc.) in the sentence.

1. The records will show who was there.

2. Don explained how the program worked.

3. Where they live is beautiful.

4. A good rest is what he needs.

5. I wonder how often they'll visit us.

6. I don't know why he did that.

7. I'll give the sofa to whoever wants it.

8. He'll cook dinner with whatever we buy.

9. When we go depends on the weather.

10. Whatever you cook, I'll eat.

17. RESTRICTIVE VS. NON-RESTRICTIVE MODIFICATION

A variety of modifiers, including relative clauses, participial phrases, and prepositional phrases may function as either restrictive or non-restrictive modifiers.

Restrictive modifiers may be seen as restricting or "narrowing down" the range of possible people or things referred to by the noun they modify. Consider the following sentence and its restrictive relative clause:

The bread that I bought was stale.

Most people see this sentence as entailing the following notions:

- there are many loaves of bread in the world
- the particular loaf I bought was stale

Here the relative clause restricts the meaning of the subject NP to one particular instance – the one that I bought.

Non-restrictive modifiers do not restrict meaning. Instead, they add additional, non-essential information about the noun they modify. The following sentence contains a non-restrictive relative clause.

Peter Fonda, who starred in *Ulee's Gold*, did not win an Oscar.

Here, the clause does not restrict "Peter Fonda"; it merely supplies incidental information.

Notice that restrictive modifiers are generally not punctuated. Non-restrictive units are set off with commas, dashes, or even parentheses.

NOTE: It is very important to understand that it is not the punctuation of a modifier that "causes" it to be restrictive. Rather, punctuation is used to convey to the reader the meaning that is intended. Remember that punctuation is merely a convention that is observed in writing and that it is not part of "grammar." In this case, however, there is a close relationship between a punctuation convention and grammatical structure.

Other examples:

The cat in the window has fleas. (restrictive prepositional phrase)

Most cats, except for Felix, like catnip. (non-restrictive prepositional phrase)

The cat sitting in the window has fleas. (restrictive present participial phrase)

Felix, sitting in the window and grooming himself, was a happy cat. (non-restrictive present part phrase)

His wife, Carol, is a microbiologist. (non-restrictive appositive; he can't (legally) have more than one wife)

His sister Ellen is a professor. (restrictive appositive; he has more than one sister, and one of them is a professor)

His sister, Ellen, is a professor. (non-restrictive appositive; he has one sister, and her name is Ellen)

Practice Exercise VIII: Identifying Modifier Types

Determine whether the modifying phrases and clauses are restrictive or non-restrictive and punctuate appropriately.

1. The tallest building in Toronto the CN Tower is an important landmark.

2. Robertson Davies' novel Fifth Business is the first book of the Deptford Trilogy.

3. Vancouver which is the third largest city in Canada is on the west coast.

4. The Vancouver in Washington is much smaller.

5. Sir John A. Macdonald who is depicted on the ten-dollar bill was known for his heavy drinking.

6. The university claiming the largest number of library holdings per student is the University of Alberta.

7. The man who is depicted on the five-dollar bill is Laurier.

8. Beethoven's opera Fidelio is a masterpiece.

9. People who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones.

10. Because the guests never arrived, all the work I did on Thursday the cooking, the cleaning, and the fluffing of the pillows was a waste of time.

18. IDENTIFYING ERRORS MADE BY SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS

The study of errors made by second language (L2) learners is a complex field of research that is of great interest to applied linguists. When we use the term "errors" we generally mean patterns of language that learners use, but that have not typically occurred in the input they have received, and that would not be used by proficient speakers of the language. For instance, someone who says *"*He goed"* may do so without ever having heard anyone use that pattern before. Instead, the verb form is likely to have been constructed by the learner on the basis of incomplete knowledge of English. Many errors in L2 speech and writing appear to arise in this way. Other errors may occur because L2 learners inappropriately apply patterns from their native language in their L2. A speaker of French, for example, might say, "**I carry often my umbrella with me*." Speakers of WCE consider this sentence ungrammatical because adverbs do not normally occur between a VT and a following NP:DO in English. And once again, this pattern is unlikely to occur in the input received by English learners. However, French *does* allow the pattern VT + Adv + NP:DO. In this case, then, the learner's knowledge of French appears to have *interfered* with L2 learning.

It is interesting to note that many L2 learners never reach a point of fully "native-like" language use. In other words, the outcome of L2 acquisition is often different from that of L1 acquisition. But even when L2 learners do not produce language that is identical to native speakers' language, they may still be excellent communicators. For that reason, it is very important not to regard the language of L2 users as "defective" or "inferior" simply because it is different from L1 language.

All the examples below illustrate matters that might be covered in courses for learners of English as a second language. They are presented here to give you an idea of the range of difficulties that English L2 speakers experience, and to provide you with analytical tools that you can use if you ever find yourself teaching English.

1. Choice of verb tense, aspect, or voice.

Joe *has called* me at 6:00 yesterday.

Target form: Joe *called* me
Explanation: The present perfect is not generally used when an exact time is specified in the sentence.

Linda *has been* married for several years, but she died last month.

Target form: was married, had been married
Explanation: The present perfect usually indicates an action or state that continues to be true up to the moment of speaking. If we say "Linda has been married for several years," we are implying that she is still married. Therefore, the present perfect is not appropriate in the first part of the sentence.

This broken chair needs to *fix*.

Target form: needs to *be fixed*
Explanation: In the intended utterance, the chair is not an agent. Rather the agent is unspecified ("Unspecified" is the one who will fix the chair). To convey this meaning, a passive construction is needed ("The chair needs to be fixed by unspecified").

2. Verb forms

Note: These errors differ from tense, aspect, or voice errors in that they result in an impossible verb form.

Did he *left* yet?

Target form: *Did* he *leave* yet?
Explanation: "Did left" is not a grammatical structure. Here the past tense has been marked twice. It can be marked only once.

When I called, she *was work* on her project.

Target form: *was working*
Explanation: "Was work" is not grammatical. The past progressive must be marked with –ing.

He *drived* to the movie.
Target form: *drove*
Explanation: Proficient speakers generally don't consider "drived" to be the past form of "drive."

3. Problems with the number of a noun (singular vs. plural)

Helen was able to obtain *many interesting informations* from her new CD-ROM.

Target form: *a great deal of* interesting *information*
Explanation: In this context "information" is an uncountable noun. It cannot be pluralized or determined by the PreArt "many."

She bought some new *softwares* for her computer.

Target form: *software*
Explanation: In this context "software" is an uncountable noun. It cannot be pluralized.

4. Subject-verb agreement

The guys was busy in the work room.

Target form: *were* busy
Explanation: The subject of the sentence ("the guys…") is plural. The verb must therefore be plural.

5. Gerund-infinitive confusion

Tom enjoys *to cook* when he has the time.

Target form: *cooking*

Explanation: "Enjoys" requires a gerund object. It cannot take an infinitive.

6. Word order errors

Why *you don't* come to visit me more often?

Target form: *don't you*
Explanation: In question formation, "do" and other auxiliaries must be moved to the front of the clause, in this case after the Wh-word (inversion).

Frank *called up her* to invite her to the party.

Target form: *called her up*
Explanation: When separable two-word verbs (such as "call up") have a personal pronoun object, that object must appear between the verb and particle.

Carol picked up *large two watermelons* at the market.

Target form: *two large watermelons*
Explanation: Normally CardN (e.g., "two") must precede any adjectives modifying a noun.

Ted *gets usually up* early.

Target form: *usually gets up early*
Explanation: It is generally not possible to break up a two-word verb with an adverbial expression.

I bought *yesterday* a litre of milk.

Target form: *Yesterday*, I bought a litre of milk. I bought a litre of milk *yesterday*.
Explanation: Adverbial expressions cannot occur between a VT and its DO.

7. Difficult prepositions

Note: The correct preposition for a particular context often cannot be predicted from any "rule." Instead prepositions tend to be used idiomatically.

I was born *in* September 24, 1982.
Target form: on (used for exact dates)

I was born *on* September.
Target form: *in* (used for months)

He is studying *in* SFU.
Target form: at (used for a particular school or other institution)

8. Problems with do-support

Why you said that?

Target form: *Why did you say* that?
Explanation: Questions in which there is no auxiliary or BE require do-support.

Tomorrow's a holiday, so I *haven't to* go to work.

Target form: I *don't have to*
Explanation: The catenative "have to" cannot be negated as a contraction. It requires "do support." (don't have to)

9. Miscellaneous problems

Phone *to* me tomorrow if you have time.

Target form: *Phone me*
Explanation: "Phone" in the sense of "phone someone" is a VT and requires a DO, not a prepositional phrase.

The runner *won the race* was from China.

Target form: The runner who won the race
Explanation: It is not possible to delete a RelPron (who) in a relative clause when it plays the role of Subj within the RELCL.

The hotel which I stayed in *it* last year was very good.

Target form: The hotel that I stayed in last year.
Explanation: "Which" is a RelPron playing the role of ObjPrep (of the preposition "in"). It is redundant (and ungrammatical) to use "it" as an ObjPrep in the same clause. "It" and "which" would be playing the same role.

The clerk *which* sold me the shirt is not working today.

Target form: *who*
Explanation: "Which" cannot be used for a human referent.

19. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL: TENSE, ASPECT, AND MODAL SEQUENCES

The following examples illustrate some of the common sequences. These patterns should not be viewed as "rules" or advice on the "correct" forms. In fact, many other patterns are possible.

I. Conditional Sentences

Possible present or future condition

if clause: simple present, present continuous
result clause: will (future time), present continuous (future time), imperative, simple present (habitual)

If it's raining right now, we'll get our umbrellas.
If it rains tomorrow, we'll take our umbrellas.
If it rains tomorrow, I'm taking my umbrella.
If it rains, take your umbrella.
If it rains, I take my umbrella

Present contrary-to-fact condition

if clause: simple past, past continuous
result clause: would, could

If it were raining, we would get our umbrellas.
If we were in Paris, we could visit the Louvre.

Past true condition

if clause: simple past, past continuous
result clause: past tense

If it was sunny, we always ate outside.

Past contrary-to-fact condition

if clause: past perfect, past perfect continuous
result clause: would have, could have

If it had rained, we would have gotten our umbrellas.
If we had taken more money, we could have stayed longer.

II. Direct quotations and reported speech

In reported speech, the simple present and present progressive may be replaced by simple past and past progressive

Marilyn said, "The flowers are beautiful."
Marilyn said that the flowers were beautiful.

Joan commented, “It’s raining.”
Joan commented that it was raining.

The simple past, past progressive, and present perfect may be replaced by the past perfect. The past perfect remains unchanged.

He said, “I slept well last night.”
He said that he had slept well last night.

She replied, “I was working at the office on Sunday”
She replied that she had been working at the office on Sunday.

Don shouted, “The pipe has burst.”
Don shouted that the pipe had burst.

Dave said, “The pipe had burst (when I arrived).”
Dave said that the pipe had burst (when he arrived).

“Will” may be replaced by “would,” “can” replaced by “could”

Diane said, “I’ll call you tomorrow.”
Diane said that she would call me tomorrow.

Mike boasted, “I can speak five languages.”
Mike boasted that he could speak five languages.

III. Other cases

Interesting patterns occur in *that* clauses preceded by *wish*.

You are here.
I wish (that) you were here.

You will leave.
I wish (that) you would leave.

Reference I: Alphabetical list of labels to be used in parsing exercises

Label	**Part of speech**	**Example**
Adj	adjective	a happy goat
Adv	adverb	Miss Muffett left suddenly.
Aux	auxiliary (type unspecified)	Miss Muffett has left.
BE	be functioning as a main verb	Little Boy Blue is lazy.
CardN	cardinal number	three crows
Caten	catenative auxiliary	We have to leave.
COMP	complementizer	I think that Mr. McGregor is angry.
CoordConj	coordinating conjunction	Jack and Jill
Correl	correlative conjunction	Both Jack and Jill
DefArt	definite article	the answer
DemonD	demonstrative determiner	This grammar book is interesting.
DemonPro	demonstrative pronoun	This is a beautiful castle.
DiscPrt	discourse particle	Well?… what do you think of my new coat?
Expl	expletive	It is obvious that Cinderella is unhappy.
GenN	genitive noun	Carol's spinning wheel
Ger	gerund	Skiing is popular in BC.
IndefArt	indefinite article	an answer
IndPossPron	independent possessive pronoun	Mine is over there.
Inf	infinitive	To live is to suffer.
Interj	Interjection	Ouch! I cut my finger.
IntPro	interrogative pronoun	What is under the chesterfield?

IntProAdv	interrogative pro-adverb	Where do you live?
IntProD	interrogative pro-determiner	Which pig tricked the wolf?
Modal	modal auxiliary	Parrots can sometimes speak.
N	noun (type unspecified)	book, chair, sky, anger
NEG	negative marker	She's not here. She isn't here.
OrdN	ordinal number	the third little pig
PastPart	past participle	The house damaged by the wolf was made of straw.
PossPronD	possessive pronoun determiner	my work
PostN	postnominal modifier	The kids both went up the hill.
PreArt	prearticle	Bo-Peep has a lot of sheep.
Prep	preposition	to the moon
PresPart	present participle	The cat sitting in the window is Bill.
Pro	pronoun (type unspecified)	he, him, someone, anybody
PropN	proper noun	Calgary, Alice Munro
Prt	particle	He got up at six.
Qual	qualifier	It's very dark.
RelDet	relative determiner	The girl whose grandmother was eaten was Red Riding Hood.
RelProAdv	relative pro-adverb	The place where she lived was the forest.
RelPron	relative pronoun	The person who gave her the cloak was her mother.
RS	reaction signal	Are you finished? … Yes.
SubConj	subordinating conjunction	After he had his accident, Humpty couldn't pull himself together.
Vc	two-place verb having an objective complement	Little pigs consider wolves dangerous.
Vg	two-place verb having an indirect object	The man gave the little pig a bunch of straw.

VI	intransitive verb	The troll waited under the bridge.
VL	linking verb	The troll seemed ugly.
VT	transitive verb	Mary ate a little lamb with mint sauce.
WhSub	wh-subordinator	What the troll wanted was some goat meat.

Reference II: Noun Phrases

Possible Roles for Noun Phrases

NP: Subj	The wolf chased the pigs.
NP: DO	Goldilocks tasted the porridge.
NP: IO	Mary fed the lambs some grain. Mary fed some grain to the lambs.
NP: PN	Tom was a thief.
NP: OC	The wolf considered grandmother an old fool.
NP: Adv	Last night the geese started an uprising.
NP: ObjPrep	The fox climbed over the fence.

Special Types of Noun Phrases

Gerund NP	Wolves like eating fresh food.
Infinitive NP	Sheep hate to be original.
that-clause NP	Mary believed that her lamb was intelligent.
wh-clause NP	The sheep did what they were told.

Reference III: Prepositional Phrases

PP: Adj	The cow in the field is ours.
PP: Adv(type)	The cow is grazing in the field.
PP: Gen	The Prime Minister visited the Queen of England.

Reference IV: Labels for other phrase types

PartPhr	participial phrase
GerPhr	gerund phrase
InfPhr	infinitive phrase
ApposPhr	appositive phrase
AbsolPhr	absolute phrase

Reference V: Clause Types

(no label)	independent clause
ADVCL	(dependent) adverb clause
NCL	(dependent) noun clause
RELCL	(dependent) relative clause

Reference VI: Some Parsing Conventions for LING 200

• Use a single label + "x wds" for multi-word expressions such as catenatives:

Caten(2 wds)
I have to go now.

• Names of specific people, places, events, etc. that consist of more than one word should be parsed as PropN(x wds):

PropN(2 wds)
He has met Queen Elizabeth.

PropN(2 wds)
He went to the beach on Labour Day.

• Contractions can be denoted by a '+' sign.

Pro+BE
He's really busy.

Modal+NEG
I wouldn't want to bother him.

• Use a single label for hyphenated words:

Adj
Is this approach cost-effective?

• If a proper noun is also genitive, use GenN:

GenN
Jake's brother is coming over.

• Write legibly. If any letter on an exam is ambiguous, we will mark it wrong. Note especially the difference between VI and VT.